

Biometric data: Misuse, use, and collation



Overview

- Biometric data is a type of personal information that allows the unique identification of a person. The most common forms of biometric data rely on fingerprints, face geometry, and voice.
- Biometric data is commonly used to unlock personal devices, speed up passport checks, or verify someone's identity for online banking.
- According to a 2023 survey, 33% of respondents in the UK preferred biometric verification as a sign-in method over using a password or an authentication application.
- Biometric data is considered "special category personal data" under the Data Protection Act 2018 and receives extra legal protection. However, researchers and think tanks have indicated that additional legal safeguards may be required, for instance, for the use of modern biometric systems such as facial recognition.
- Developments in artificial intelligence have made new uses of biometric data possible. It has been suggested that personal information such as age, ethnicity, sexuality, or emotions, can be inferred from biometric data. This could have a range of ethical implications, including negative implications for privacy and other civil liberties.

Background

Biometric data is a type of personal information that allows the unique identification of a person. It is defined in UK law as “personal data resulting from specific technical processing relating to the physical, physiological or behavioural characteristics of a natural person, which allow or confirm the unique identification of that natural person”.^{a 1,2}

Physical and physiological biometric data includes information on fingerprints or faceprints, while behavioural biometric data includes information on voiceprints or gait analysis (see Box 1).^{b 8,9}

According to a 2023 study,^c respondents increasingly prefer biometric verification for device sign-in (33%) over using a password (15%) or an authenticator application^d (5%).¹¹ The most common methods for biometric verification on personal devices such as smartphones and laptops are face and fingerprint verification.¹² To create a biometric record and to verify the user, a series of processes take place (see Table 1).

Industry estimates suggest that the global “passwordless verification”^e market was worth over £12.5 billion in 2023 and is expected to reach a value of £46 billion by 2032.¹⁴ This is mostly due to increased adoption.¹⁴

Unlike passwords, biometric data is linked to the physical or behavioural characteristics of a person. If stolen, it is impossible for a user to get new biometric characteristics. Due to its sensitive nature, biometric data is considered “special category personal data”^{f15} and receives extra protection under the Data Protection Act (DPA) 2018¹ and the UK General Data Protection Regulation (UK GDPR) (see section on “UK regulatory environment for biometric data”).^{2,16}

Developments in artificial intelligence (AI) have made possible new uses of biometric data, including live facial recognition and emotion analysis. Academics and think tanks have expressed concerns that these new tools could require enhanced individual protections and further regulations.^{17–22}

^a Biometric data is defined in the UK under the Data Protection Act 2018, and in the EU under General Data Protection Regulation.

^b Genetic data is not considered biometric data under the Data Protection Act 2018. However, genetic data is considered biometric data by international standards,^{3,4} previous UK laws (Protection of Freedoms Act 2012),⁵ and Scottish law (Scottish Biometrics Commissioner Act 2020).^{6,7}

^c A survey by the FIDO Alliance of 10,000 consumers in U.S., U.K., France, Germany, Australia, Singapore, Japan, South Korea, India and China

^d An authenticator application is a software which generates secure codes one can use to sign-in to their online accounts.¹⁰

^e Passwordless verification (also known as passwordless authentication) is a verification method allowing a user to access a system with a evidence other than a password such as personal identifying numbers (PINs), security tokens, or biometric data (for instance, fingerprint verification).^{13,14}

^f Biometric data is considered special category data where the purpose test of unique identification is met.

Box 1: Types of biometric data and sign-in methods

The most common biometric data for personal device sign-in are:

- **Fingerprints:** No two fingerprints have ever been found to be identical, including between identical twins.²³ Fingerprint uniqueness has been used since 1892 to solve criminal cases²³ and can be used to unlock personal devices such as smartphones and laptops. Examples include Apple Touch ID and Windows Hello.^{24–26}
- **Voiceprints:** Everyone has a unique voice due to differences in vocal tract shape, larynx size, speaking rhythm and intonation style.²⁷ Voice frequencies can be converted into a unique mathematical formula called a voiceprint.²⁸ Voiceprint verification is used to access banking and public services (for instance, HMRC).^{29–34}

Faceprints: Facial landmarks, such as the distance between the eyes, the distance from forehead to chin, or the shape of cheekbones can be converted into a unique mathematical formula called a faceprint.³⁵ Faceprint verification can be used for border control checks³⁶ or for unlocking personal devices. Examples include Apple Face ID and Windows Hello.³⁵

What is biometric data used for?

While biometric verification asks “Is this person who they claim to be?”, biometric identification asks “Who is this person?”.³⁷

Biometric verification

Biometric verification is the comparison of biometric features of a person with previously stored biometric data. It is used to confirm that they are who they claim to be (see Table 1).³ It is also known as ‘one-to-one comparison’. This process is used in a variety of ways.

Table 1: Biometric enrolment and verification

1. Biometric sample	A digital capture of someone's biological or behavioural characteristics is made using a device such as a camera, a fingerprint scanner, or a microphone. ³
2. Biometric feature extraction	Characteristics ^g of the biometric sample are examined. ³ For instance, during the Apple Face ID verification, the built-in face camera examines 30,000 dots from the user's face. ³⁸ The mathematical representation of the location of these dots is a set of biometric features. ^h
3. Biometric template	A set of biometric features are stored for reference. Users' biographical information ⁱ can also be stored. It will be used later to prove someone's identity. ³
4. Encryption	The biometric template is encrypted to make it difficult to reconstruct a fingerprint or a faceprint from the mathematical representation. ^{24,35,40}
5. Storage	<p>Personal devices: biometric data is stored on the device and the original biometric capture (for instance, someone's face or fingerprint) is deleted.⁴¹</p> <p>Servers: the biometric template is stored in a server and can be accessed remotely to check someone's identity on different sites (for instance, international border checks). It is also easier to update the software that compares the stored biometric template to the biometric data from a user.⁴¹</p>
6. Verification	To verify a user's identity, the biometric model captured at the login step is compared to the biometric template of the user. The system then uses a comparison algorithm to decide whether these two biometric models are sufficiently similar to be from the same person. ⁴²
7. De-enrolment	Irreversible destruction of the stored biometric template from a personal device or a database. ³ This can be done when a person withdraws their consent or if they make an erasure request. ^{j 43,44}

^g To meet international security standards, these characteristics need to be repeatable (almost identical between several captures from the same individual) and distinctive (very different from someone else's captures).³

^h Biometric features take the form of a list of numbers readable by biometric algorithms, not by people.³⁹

ⁱ Biographical information can be a person's name, nationality, date of birth, or place of birth.

^j Exemptions from the right to erasure are detailed in the Data Protection Act 2018.⁴³ For instance, the right to erasure does not apply if biometric data is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest or in the exercise of official authority.⁴³

British e-Passport

The first British e-Passport was issued in 2006 (also known as a biometric passport). It comprises an electronic chip in which the biographical information^k and faceprint of the passport holder are embedded.⁴⁵ By 2016, all British passports were e-Passports, with over 45 million British e-Passport holders in 2022.^l⁴⁶

E-Passports can be used with an automated border control system known as eGates.³⁶ As of March 2024, there were over 270 eGates in place at 15 air and rail ports to facilitate travel into the UK.³⁶ eGates are automated barriers which compare the faceprint stored in the e-Passport with a photo taken at the time of entry.^{47,48}

Banking

Along with commonly used biometric verification methods such as fingerprints and facial recognition, voice verification offers an additional route for securely accessing banking services over the phone.⁴⁹

Barclays was the first UK bank to use voice verification for some of its customers in 2013.⁴⁹ HSBC and Lloyds Banking Group^m introduced voice verification in 2016³⁰ and 2018,³² respectively.

HSBC serves 14.5 million customers in the UK, of which 2 million are active users of its voice verification system.⁵⁰ HSBC claims its voice verification system prevented £395 million worth of telephone fraud between 2016 and 2019.⁵⁰

In 2017, a BBC article highlighted potential issues with the HSBC voice verification system when a journalist claimed that his non-identical twin brother managed to access his account by mimicking his brother's voice.⁵¹

In response, a HSBC spokesperson noted that twins do have similar voiceprints but that this technology is more secure than PINs and passwords and has led to a significant reduction in fraud.⁵¹

HM Revenue & Customs

In 2017, HM Revenue and Customs (HMRC) introduced a voice verification system to speed up customer verification when calling the tax creditsⁿ or Self Assessment^o helplines.³⁴ By 2018, almost 7 million users were enrolled in the HMRC voice verification system.⁵²

In 2018, Big Brother Watch, a UK civil liberties campaign group, reported that HMRC failed to receive explicit consent to store 5 million user voice records.⁵³ In May 2019, the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO) considered the HMRC voice verification system to be non-compliant with UK GDPR and requested HMRC to delete the

^k Biographical information can include a person's name, nationality, date of birth, or place of birth.

^l Only e-Passports were issued in the UK after 2006.⁴⁵

^m Lloyds Banking Group includes Lloyds Bank, Halifax, and Bank of Scotland.

ⁿ This includes claims for child tax credits and work tax credits.

^o Self Assessment is HMRC's system to collect income tax from revenues other than wages and pensions.

records.⁵⁴ By June 2019, HMRC had complied⁵⁵ and changed its way of seeking users' consent.⁵⁶

The robustness of voice verification systems was questioned in 2023 when journalists reported they accessed the Australian Government's Centrelink^p voice verification system using a voice generated with artificial intelligence (AI).^q ⁵⁹

To detect AI-generated voices, Nuance Communications,^r a Microsoft company developing voice verification systems, combined voice verification with synthetic speech detection^s and conversational algorithms.^t ⁶³ Nuance Communications claims that the combination of these three technologies could accurately detect cloned voices in 99% of cases.⁶³

Biometric identification

Biometric identification, also known as 'one-to-many comparison', refers to the use of biometric data to determine whether an individual matches the information in a reference database.^{3,39} By searching against a database of previously enrolled individuals, biometric identification asks "Who is this person?" or "Do we know this person already?".³⁹

Facial recognition

Available facial recognition systems

Facial recognition may be used by UK police forces in situations in which it may be difficult for police officers to identify suspects, for instance in dense crowds.⁶⁴ There are three types of facial recognition (FR) systems used by UK police forces:

- **Retrospective Facial Recognition (RFR)** is a post-event^u use of facial recognition technology that compares a facial image of an unknown individual against a reference image database (for instance, the Police National Database).^v

^p Centrelink is an Australian Government's agency providing social security payment and services.⁵⁷

^q Other AI attacks are increasing in frequency; one report stated that attacks in which a user's face is used in place of a malicious actor's own, via 'face swapping' AI software, increased by over seven times between 2022 and 2023.⁵⁸

^r Nuance Communications provides voice verification systems to the Australian Tax Office,⁶⁰ Natwest Group,³³ Lloyds Banking group,³² and HSBC UK.⁶¹ HMRC used Nuance's digital assistants to roll out HMRC's Covid-19 schemes to financially support businesses and individuals during the pandemic.⁶²

^s Synthetic speech detection algorithms detect tiny differences that distinguish a computer-generated voice from a live human voice.⁶³

^t Conversational algorithms analyse the way people use language (word choices, grammar, sentence structure) and compare it to the conversational patterns of known customers.⁶³

^u The EU AI Act uses the term "post" instead of "retrospective" for post-event use of biometric identification.⁶⁵

^v As of October 2023, there were 16,572,608 custody facial images held on the Police National Database.¹⁷ In his Annual Report 2020, the Commissioner for the Retention and Use of Biometric

⁶⁷ For each identification search, the system returns a candidate list that best matches the submitted image.⁶⁷

- **Operator Initiated Facial Recognition (OIFR)** is a near-real-time use of facial recognition technology, where a police officer takes a photograph of a subject via a mobile device and submits it for an immediate search against a reference image database.⁶⁷ For each identification search, the system returns a short candidate list that best matches the submitted image.⁶⁷ As of September 2024, OIFR is at an early trial stage.⁶⁴
- **Live Facial Recognition^w (LFR)** compares a live camera video feed of faces against a predetermined watchlist to find a possible match that generates an alert.⁶⁴

Facial recognition and the false positive rate

When a biometric system matches an individual with someone on a reference database who is not them, it is a 'false positive match'. The 'false-positive rate' of a system, also known as 'false alert rate', indicates how often a system generates a false positive match.

Facial recognition (FR) technology requires AI algorithms that have been trained on a dataset of known images. If the FR system has been trained on a dataset where certain types of face are under-represented, such as female faces or those from minority ethnic groups, the system will make errors more often when exposed to these under-represented faces.⁶⁸

In 2023, the Metropolitan Police Service and the South Wales Police commissioned the National Physical Laboratory (NPL) to assess the LFR, RFR, and OIFR systems they used.⁶⁷ The objective of this study was to evaluate any bias and to determine the appropriate face-match thresholds^x to ensure those systems perform with high accuracy and fairness.⁶⁷

For low face-match thresholds, the NPL study found that there was a "statistically significant imbalance between demographics", with more Black or Asian subjects having a false positive than White subjects for live facial recognition.^{y 67}

In 2019, the US National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) conducted tests to quantify demographic differences for 52 face identification systems. The

Material wrote that most UK police officers were "continuing to retain the vast majority of their custody images indefinitely, regardless of whether the individual has been convicted of an offence".⁶⁶

^w The EU AI Act uses the term "real-time" instead of "live" when the biometric data capture, comparison, and identification all occur "without a significant delay".⁶⁵

^x A high face-match threshold makes the comparison algorithm stricter, increasing the risk that an offender won't be identified (false negative). A low threshold makes the comparison algorithm less strict, increasing the risk of matching an innocent person with an individual on an offender watchlist (false positive).⁶⁹

^y Out of 4,000 recognition opportunities against a demographically balanced dataset of 178,000 images using lower face-match thresholds than default settings, there were three White, eight Asian, and 22 Black subjects that had a false positive identification.

accuracy of these systems was evaluated against a database containing millions of faces from 24 countries in 7 distinct global regions.⁷⁰

This study found that:

- False positives were higher in women than men. This effect is smaller than that due to race.⁷⁰
- There were more false positives for the elderly and children in comparison to middle-age faces.⁷⁰
- False positive rates were highest in West and East African, and East Asian people, and lowest in Eastern Europe individuals. However, this effect was reversed for East Asian people for several algorithms developed in China.⁷⁰

Fingerprints and forensics

Forensics, also known as forensic science, is the application of scientific methods to matters of criminal and civil law.⁷¹ Forensics can be used, for example, to establish a person's presence at the scene of a crime, exclude a suspect from a scene, or link different crime scenes to provide intelligence on crime patterns.⁷²

Forensic analysis can be supported by biometric information, such as fingerprints.⁷² The first criminal trial in the United Kingdom in which a person was identified and convicted based on fingerprint evidence took place in 1902.⁷³

In 2022, the National Police Chiefs' Council deployed the Police Digital Service (PDS) Xchange platform.⁷⁴ This national cloud-based platform integrates the existing UK national fingerprints database IDENT1^z - comprising 8.6 million digital fingerprint records – and allows forensic teams to access this database remotely to send fingerprints in real-time for comparison and identification.⁷⁴

New generation biometric systems

New systems have been developed that aim to classify individuals into different demographic categories or infer emotions and psychological states (Box 2).¹⁷ These systems use correlations between biometric characteristics, such as facial features, and traits, such as age or race, based on AI models analysing patterns from large datasets.⁷⁶

Biometric categorisation system

Biometric categorisation systems^{aa} seek to categorise individuals based on biometric data collected and compared with features on large databases.¹⁷ For example, biometric systems have been developed to categorise people according to their gender,⁷⁷ age,⁷⁷ ethnicity,⁷⁸ body mass index,⁷⁹ or sexuality.^{80–82}

^z Since 2012, IDENT1 is operated by the Home Office and is accessible by law enforcement agencies.⁷⁵

^{aa} Also known as biometric classification systems.

Some of these systems, in particular those related to sexuality, have been highly criticised by researchers^{83,84} and think tanks^{19,18,17} for using pseudo-scientific assumptions^{bb} to draw links between facial features and other traits.^{83,84}

Biometric inferential systems

Biometric inferential systems infer a person's emotions or behaviour based on biometric data.¹⁷ For example, with the increase in online learning during the pandemic, Intel developed a system that it claims can detect whether students in online classes are bored or paying attention based on student's facial expressions.^{86,87} Academics and think tanks^{17-19,88} have also expressed concerns over the use of biometric inferential system during job interviews (Box 2).

Box 2: Controversial uses of facial recognition

- **Clearview AI** is a US-based facial recognition company which offers a "face search" capability against its database of more than 40 billion facial images.⁸⁹ In 2022, the French,⁹⁰ Italian,⁹¹ and Greek⁹² data regulators all fined Clearview AI €20 million, the maximum fine possible for data breach under the EU GDPR. The ICO also issued an enforcement notice ordering the company to delete the data of UK residents from its systems.^{19,20,93}
- **Hikvision and Dahua** are two Chinese state-owned surveillance camera makers providing facial recognition software. In April 2022, in a letter to the Cabinet Office, the Biometrics and Surveillance Camera Commissioner (BSCC) highlighted the risk presented by "state-controlled surveillance systems covering our public spaces".^{94,95} In November 2022, the UK Government instructed government departments to stop using Chinese CCTV systems on sensitive sites.⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸

HireVue is a US-based company developing recruitment software used by more than 1,150 businesses.⁹⁹ HireVue's hiring software analysed thousands of data points related to a person's voice and facial movements to infer the candidate's "willingness to learn" and "personal stability".¹⁰⁰ In 2019, the American Electronic Privacy Information Center filed a complaint with the Federal Trade Commission alleging that "HireVue has committed unfair and deceptive practices".^{100,101} Recruitment software using facial and voice recognition were found to penalise candidates with darker skin¹⁰² or accents.¹⁰³ In 2021, HireVue announced that it would stop relying on facial analysis to assess job candidates.¹⁰⁴

^{bb} Such as physiognomy, a pseudoscience investigating the systematic correspondence of psychological characteristics to physical features.⁸⁵

UK regulatory environment for biometric data

After the UK left the European Union (EU), the key principles, rights and obligations of the EU GDPR were retained in domestic law as UK GDPR.^{cc 16} However, leaving the EU had implications on the rules on transfers of personal data from the European Economic Area (EEA) to the UK, described below.^{dd 16}

Data Protection Act 2018

The Data Protection Act 2018 (DPA 2018) updated data protection laws in the UK.^{ee} It supplements the EU GDPR, implements the Law Enforcement Directive (LED), and extended data protection laws to areas that are not covered by the EU GDPR or the LED such as intelligence services.^{105,106}

On 28 June 2021, the EU Commission published two adequacy decisions^{ff} in respect of transfers of personal data from the EEA to the UK:^{108,109}

- **EU GDPR adequacy decision:** This decision states that the UK provides adequate protection for personal data transferred from the EEA to the UK under the EU GDPR.^{110,111}
- **Law Enforcement Directive adequacy decision:** This decision states that the UK provides adequate protection for personal data transferred from EU law enforcement authorities.^{111,112}

These two adequacy decisions allow personal data, such as biometric data, to move freely from the EEA to the UK.^{108,109} The adequacy decisions also support the implementation of the EU-UK Trade and Cooperation Agreement.^{gg 108,109}

Both adequacy decisions include safeguards in case of future divergence between the UK and the EU such as a "sunset clause", which limits the duration of adequacy to four years.¹⁰⁸ These two adequacy decisions are expected to last until 27 June 2025 at which point they could be extended for another four years.¹¹¹

^{cc} The UK has the independence to amend and keep under review the UK GDPR.¹⁶

^{dd} The EEA includes the 27 EU countries alongside Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway.

^{ee} Past UK regulations include: the Data Protection Act 1984, Data Protection Act 1998, and the Privacy and Electronic Communications Regulations 2003.

^{ff} An adequacy decision is a decision made by the EU which recognises that another country provides an equivalent level of protection for personal data to the EU.¹⁰⁷

^{gg} The EU-UK Trade and Cooperation Agreement sets out arrangements in areas such as trade, digital trade, intellectual property, public procurement, transport, energy, law enforcement and judicial cooperation in criminal matters.^{113,114}

UK regulators

Information Commissioner's Office

The Information Commissioner's Office (ICO)^{hh} was established to oversee the UK-wide application of the Data Protection Act 1984.¹¹⁹ The ICO is an executive non-departmental public body sponsored by the Department for Science, Innovation and Technology.¹²⁰ The ICO is primarily funded by organisations paying the data protection fee,ⁱⁱ which covers over 85% of the ICO's annual budget of £87.3 million in 2023-24.¹²¹

The ICO ensures individuals' rights are protected under data protection regulations (for instance, DPA 2018, UK GDPR).¹²² It can take legal actions against non-compliant organisations, including biometric data collection, use and storage (Box 2).¹²³ As data protection legislation is not devolved to Wales, Scotland, or Northern Ireland, the ICO's remit covers the UK as a whole.^{124,125}

Home Office bodies

Office of the Biometrics and Surveillance Camera Commissioner

The Protection of Freedoms Act 2012 established two statutory roles:

- **The Commissioner for the Retention and Use of Biometric Material** reviews the retention and use of DNA samples, DNA profiles and fingerprints by the police.¹²⁶
- **The Surveillance Camera Commissioner** encourages compliance with the Home Secretary's voluntary Surveillance Camera Code of Practice.^{jj} ¹²⁸

Since 2022, the two posts have been carried out by one full-time Biometrics and Surveillance Camera Commissioner (BSCC).¹²⁸

The BSCC is an independent monitoring body of the Home Office.¹²⁹ The commissioner has no enforcement or inspection powers and works with relevant authorities to ensure they follow the Surveillance Camera Code of Practice.¹²⁹

In 2023 the UK Government put forward the Data Protection and Digital Information (DPDI) Bill, which proposed to abolish the BSCC's office. The removal of the BSCC's office has been criticised by academics¹²⁴ and think tanks.^{130,131} The bill did not complete all its stages before the 2024 general election.

^{hh} Also known as the Data Protection Registrar until 2001, the Information Commissioner's Office also publishes investigations and opinions on UK data, for instance on facial recognition technology.^{115–118}

ⁱⁱ Under the DPA 2018, organisations processing personal data must pay a data protection fee.¹²¹

^{jj} The purpose of this code is "to enable operators of surveillance camera systems to make a legitimate use of this technology in a way that the public would rightly expect and to a standard that maintains public trust and confidence."¹²⁷

Biometrics and Forensics Ethics Group

The Biometrics and Forensic Ethics Group (BFEG) was formed in 2017 as a successor to the National DNA Database Ethics Group.¹³² The BFEG is an advisory non-departmental public body sponsored by the Home Office.¹³² The BFEG is structured as a committee comprising experienced unpaid professionals with expertise in, for instance, computer or forensic science, or law.^{kk 134}

The BFEG is commissioned to consider the ethical impact on society, groups, and individuals in areas such as: the collection, retention, and use of human biometric identifiers (DNA, fingerprints, face recognition), the retention and use of forensic data, the use of large datasets within the Home Office, and the implementation of systems using AI.¹³⁵

The BFEG has published various briefing notes on, for instance, the ethical issues arising from voice analysis or public-private collaboration in the use of live facial recognition technology.¹³⁶

A BFEG interim report from 2019 found that there was a need to differentiate biases “inherent to the design and training” of LFR models from biases “introduced when a human operator decides on the basis of the system output.”⁶⁸ This report also highlighted “the lack of independent oversight and governance of the use of LFR”, recommending “that police trials of LFR should comply with the usual standards of experimental trials” until the development of a LFR legislative framework.⁶⁸

Scottish Biometric Commissioner

Investigation of crime, maintenance of public order, and policing in Scotland is devolved to the Scottish Parliament.^{ll 125,137,138} The Scottish Biometrics Commissioner Act 2020 established the Office of the Scottish Biometric Commissioner, which has oversight over the collation, use, and storage of biometric data by Police Scotland.^{mmm 6,139}

The Commissioner’s function is to promote the adoption of lawful, effective, and ethical practices regarding the acquisition, retention, use and destruction of biometric data for criminal justice and police purposes.¹³⁹ The Commissioner’s function extends to Police Scotland, the Scottish Police Authority and the Police Investigations and Review Commissioner.¹³⁹

The Commissioner has prepared a Code of Practice on the acquisition, retention, use and destruction of biometric data for criminal justice and police purposes, which entered into force in November 2022.¹⁴⁰ The office of the Scottish Biometric Commissioner publishes annual reports, guidance, and reviews. In 2023, a review on the acquisition of biometric data from children and vulnerable persons in custody

^{kk} The BFEG also has a representative on the Forensic Information Databases Strategy Board, which provides oversight over the National DNA Database (NDNAD) and the National Fingerprint Database (IDENT1).¹³³

^{ll} Surveillance by Police Scotland and devolved public authorities is devolved, but other surveillance carried out by security and intelligence agencies (among others) is reserved.¹²⁵

^{mmm} The Scottish Biometrics Commissioner is independent of the Scottish Government and is appointed by His Majesty the King on the nomination of the Scottish Parliament.¹³⁹

found that the information the police gives to individuals when taking biometric data should be tailored to the needs of the recipient.¹⁴¹

The Scottish Biometric Commissioner's remit only covers the use and retention of biometric data in Scotland for policing and criminal purposes.ⁿⁿ The use and retention of biometric data in Scotland for national security purposes is not devolved to Scotland and is part of the BSCC's remit.¹²⁴

Digital Information and Smart Data Bill

In 2024, the King's Speech outlined [plans for a Digital Information and Smart Data Bill](#) that may have implications for the use of biometric data in the UK. The government said the bill would establish a Digital Verification Service to create secure digital identity products for pre-employment checks or moving house, for instance, and to "ensure [public] data is well protected by giving the regulator (the ICO) new, stronger powers and a more modern structure."

Information on the bill will be published on the parliament website when it is introduced.

International regulatory environment for biometric data

EU General Data Protection Regulation

The EU General Data Protection Regulation (EU GDPR) is an EU law that protects fundamental rights affected by the processing of personal data. This law came into effect in the EU in 2018.^{oo} The EU GDPR imposes obligations on organisations within and outside of the EU that use or collect personal data of individuals in the EU.¹⁰⁵

The EU GDPR allows supervisory authorities to issue substantial fines for non-compliant organisations, including for biometric data misuse (Box 2). These fines can be as high as €20 million (£17 million)^{pp} or 4% of the company's annual global revenue, whichever is higher.² Notable financial penalties for non-compliance included £1 billion levied against Meta Platforms Ireland by the Data Protection Authority of Ireland, which found that it had unlawfully transferred personal customer data to Meta US.^{144,145}

ⁿⁿ Extending only to the use of fingerprints and DNA of non-convicted persons.

^{oo} The EU GDPR applied in the UK from 25 May 2018 until the end of the implementation period of the UK-EU Withdrawal Agreement on 31 December 2020.¹⁴²

^{pp} As of September 2024, the Bank of England's exchange rate against Euro is: £0.84.¹⁴³

The Law Enforcement Directive

The Law Enforcement Directive (LED) is an EU directive that sits alongside the EU GDPR. The LED deals with the processing of personal data by data controllers for “law enforcement purposes”, which falls outside of the scope of the EU GDPR. In particular, the LED ensures that personal data of victims, witnesses, and suspects of crime are protected. The LED also facilitates cross-border cooperation in addressing crime and terrorism.¹⁰⁵

AI and biometric data: international comparison

Developments in AI have led to the emergence of new possible uses of biometric data. AI-assisted tools can recognise faces with a similar efficiency to the human brain¹⁴⁶ and the identity of an individual can be quickly verified with a short voice recording.^{34,32,33,30,60} The potential consequences have led many leading jurisdictions and their regulators to focus increasing attention on AI.

- **UK pro-innovation approach to AI regulation:** In March 2023, the UK Government published a white paper introducing its regulatory framework for the use of AI.¹⁴⁷ This ‘context-based’ framework relies on existing regulators to assess the impact of AI on individuals in a particular context.¹⁴⁸ In February 2024, the UK Government published the outcome of its consultations on AI and confirmed its intention to pursue its pro-innovation approach.¹⁴⁹ The Data Protection and Digital Information (DPDI) Bill was introduced by the Government in March 2023 to update provisions on the oversight of biometric data, but it fell at the 2024 general election.^{150,151}
- **US Executive Order on the Safe, Secure, and Trustworthy Development and Use of Artificial Intelligence:** In October 2023, the US President issued an Executive Order regulating the use of AI in the US.¹⁵² This Executive Order establishes an AI ‘risk-based’ approach and directs various federal agencies and departments to create standards and regulations for the use or oversight of AI.^{153,154}
- **EU AI Act:** This Act came into force on 1 August 2024⁹⁹ and gives provision for a ‘risk-based’ approach. It lays out comprehensive rules across all sectors and applications.^{148,156,157} It establishes four levels of risk of AI to fundamental human rights (unacceptable risk, high risk, limited risk, and minimal risk), with different rules for each level.¹⁴⁸ The use of biometric identification systems is prohibited for law enforcement except in “narrowly defined situations.”¹⁵⁸

A detailed comparison on the regulation of biometric data and AI across the UK, EU and US is provided in Table 2 below.

⁹⁹ Regulation (EU) 2024/1689.¹⁵⁵

Table 2: Comparison of EU, US, and UK regulation of use of AI and biometric data

	EU AI Act^{159,160}	US Executive Order on AI¹⁵²	UK Regulations
Facial recognition (FR)	<p>Forbids the compiling of FR databases by “untargeted scraping of facial images from the internet or CCTV footage”.¹⁶¹</p> <p>Forbids the use of real-time remote biometric identification systems in publicly accessible spaces for law enforcement.^{rr 161}</p>	<p>No mention of FR in the Executive Order.</p> <p>The accuracy and fairness of facial recognition software continues to be evaluated by the NIST’s Face Recognition Vendor Test.¹⁶²</p>	<p>The DPA 2018 gives provision for the oversight of the use of FR for both the private sector and police under certain conditions.¹⁶³</p>
Biometric categorisation and inferential systems	<p>Forbids the use of systems that categorise individuals “based on their biometric data to deduce or infer their race, political opinions, trade union membership, religious or philosophical beliefs, sex life or sexual orientation”.¹⁶¹</p>	<p>Federal governments must ensure a lawful, safe, and secure handling of data when used for inferring information about people’s habits and desires.¹⁵²</p> <p>Federal governments must also mitigate privacy and confidentiality risks.¹⁵²</p>	<p>From 2023, the ICO is working on a consultation on “biometric classification and data protection”.^{164,165}</p>
New regulators	<p>AI Office: monitors, supervises, and enforces the EU AI Act, analyses unforeseen risks, and supports the creation of regulatory sandboxes^{ss} where companies can test AI systems in a controlled environment.¹⁶⁸</p>	<p>AI Safety and Security Board: advises the Secretary of Homeland Security, private sector stakeholders, and the public on the safe and secure development and deployment of AI technology.¹⁶⁹</p>	<p>The DPDI Bill, which fell at the 2024 election, provided for the transfer of the offices of Commissioner for the Retention and Use of Biometric Material and Surveillance Camera to the Investigatory Powers Commissioner’s Office (IPCO).^{tt 124}</p>

^{rr} Except when: searching for missing persons, searching for trafficked or sexually exploited persons, for preventing threat to life, for preventing terrorist attack, for identifying suspects in serious crimes.

^{ss} A regulatory sandbox is a controlled environment where AI systems can be developed, tested, and validated before being released to the market. A regulatory sandbox provides innovators with incentives to test their innovations in a controlled environment and allows regulators to better understand the technology.^{166,167}

^{tt} The Investigatory Powers Act 2016 established the IPCO which provides oversight of the use of investigatory powers by intelligence agencies, police forces and other public authorities.

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